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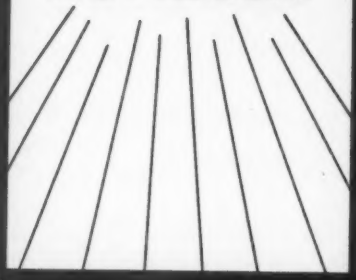
educational horizons



OFFICIAL PUBLICATION OF PI LAMBDA THETA

PURPOSE

Pi Lambda Theta is a national honor and professional association for women in education

Its purpose shall be to maintain the highest standards of scholarship and professional preparation and to foster professional spirit and fellowship by

WORKING actively to further the cause of democratic education;

CO-OPERATING in the solution of problems which interpenetrate various fields of knowledge;

ENCOURAGING intercultural understandings;

STRIVING for a clear understanding of local, state, national, and international problems and stimulating active participation in their solution;

ENCOURAGING graduate work and stimulating research.

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Opinions expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official views of the organization.

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Toward a Philosophy of Leadership

HELEN M. DONOVAN*

To grasp and direct the prodigious new forces that are shaping the new world will make the most unsparing demands not only on our wealth and our skills, but on our reservoirs of intelligence, tolerance, wisdom and magnanimity.

HENRY STEELE COMMAGER'S words in an article entitled "Brave World of the Year 2000" in the *New York Times* of November 1, 1959, evoke thoughts of leadership in a most eloquent way. Never were the people of the United States faced with a greater challenge or a heavier responsibility in assuming the leadership role thrust on them by this particular time in history. So tremendous is the challenge that one is tempted to dismiss it as being beyond one's energies or powers. Second thought, though, makes it clear that each one of us is a part of these "people of the United States" about whom we speak and upon whom the burden of leadership rests.

Women in general—and university women as a group—can scarcely evade this obligation to assume leadership roles. Even the timid and reticent are called to leadership because a strong case can be made for the similarity, if not indeed the equating, of the qualities necessary for leadership with those necessary for living the good life. The growth toward the integrated person which, in varying degrees, is the goal of each one of us provides for the acquisition of leadership qualities whether intended or not. Who could say that self-confidence, dignity, good humor, and enthusiasm were not part and parcel of both the well-integrated person and the leader?

We have long thought of leadership in terms of qualities to be possessed and techniques to be practiced; and, indeed, it does consist of personal qualities and techniques. However, is it not possible that a philosophical framework or a set of guiding principles would make these qualities and techniques more understandable and more fruitful? Would they not be more attainable and less contrived if they could be perceived in a broader frame of reference, a higher set of values, or (in essence) a philosophical context?

If one thought about and respected the dignity and worth of every human being, would not many leadership qualities fall into place automatically? When one has this respect for human beings, one is generous, courteous, kind, and considerate. Leaders who are concerned with the importance of each person will want the best for each one in terms of work satisfaction, having him see how each part fits into

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the total, keeping him informed, and sharing tangible results with him. Hearing both sides of issues, encouraging the shy, utilizing people's strengths, pursuing personal self-realization and encouraging it in others come naturally to those who seriously contemplate this philosophical notion of man's unique and honorable place in an ordered world. These leaders will concern themselves with the basic psychological needs of people. They will make them feel welcome, give them a feeling of belonging and being accepted, and express gratitude for their efforts. Everyone needs acceptance and approbation if he is to develop to his capacity. These leaders will avoid the pitfall of armchair psychological evaluations of people, realizing that very few of us possess the trained competency to engage in this kind of personal evaluation of co-workers. Where leadership is governed by the democratic tenet of personal dignity and worth, the psychological needs of people are more likely to be met.

Leaders will be concerned about the aims of the organization for, as Ordway Tead so succinctly describes it, "The essence of leadership is getting people to mobilize on behalf of some aim because they come to desire its realization and want to join in bringing it to pass."[1] Implicit in this definition is the necessity of clearly knowing the aim so that its achievement can be desired. The complexity of our organizations, institutions, and culture does militate against keeping aims clearly in view and contributes immeasurably to the frustrations encountered in organizational or any other kind of work. Whether it is a school system, a hospital, a giant corporation, or an educational association, the primary aim—indeed, the very "reason for being"—must be defined and restated frequently if all members are "to desire its realization." The delineation and refinement of the aim, too, can contribute to this mobilization of people on its behalf. The aim ought to be examined periodically to make sure that it can command the loyalty of people. It will have to go beyond immediate self-interest if it is to stimulate people. Satisfying and total patient care for the hospital, better and cheaper cars for families for the automobile industry, and concern for imaginative and fruitful education for the Pi Lambda Thetan are but a few examples of aims which raise the sights of people. What opportunities for involving people we miss when we do not give the aim itself its place of importance in its achievement.

Fellowship fund work and contributions might be stimulated by relating the work more frequently to its first goal of helping society by providing educational opportunities to outstanding women. The education of these women is really secondary to the good which the acquisition of that education can do for their spheres of influence. Leaders who frequently recur to primary aims are better able to sustain the interest and efforts of workers. Interrelationships often become clearer and reinforce each other when primary aims are given more attention. An organization stands only to benefit by having its leaders reminding themselves and the membership of the goals to be achieved. In no more effective way can means be ordered to ends whether it is Pi Lambda Theta, the United Nations, or General Motors.

One can scarcely think of leadership without thinking of conflict, for an integral part of leadership is that it tries to reduce or resolve conflict. If conflict were more

[1] Ordway Tead, *The Art of Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951), p. 135.

often viewed in the context of Mary Parker Follett's "law of the situation" principle,[2] it could more readily be resolved. Her principle insists on the situation itself dictating the proper course of action or decision, not the people involved in it. If a situation of conflict is scrutinized carefully for itself, the best solution will emerge. This ability to depersonalize the issue and have it submitted to its own inner logic is the duty of the leader. He has also to help the others achieve this kind of detachment for the purpose of finding the best solution to the problem or conflict. Again a guiding principle helps to provide the attitude and vision necessary for the resolution of conflict. It gives support to persuasion rather than coercion, to issues rather than personalities.

Never before has leadership been so harassed by urgency, for the issues today are more involved and crucial than ever in the history of mankind. We simply cannot ignore them for they are everywhere around us. Distinguished and dedicated leadership is essential so that "our reservoirs of intelligence, tolerance, wisdom and magnanimity" may be opened wide. University women can provide some of this leadership, for their potential is far from realized. Immersing leadership qualities and techniques in the larger context of philosophical principles would help to release this potential.

[2] H. Metcalf and L. Urwick, "Dynamic Administration," in *The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1940), pp. 58-59.

THE TWENTY-SECOND BIENNIAL COUNCIL

OF

PI LAMBDA THETA

WILL BE HELD FROM AUGUST 23

THROUGH AUGUST 26, 1961,

AT

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

CHICAGO CAMPUS

The Study of Man in Teacher Education

BERTHA B. QUINTANA*

RECENT YEARS have witnessed the improvement of articulation between the fields of education and anthropology. That this articulation is appropriate and desirable emerges from even a brief look at anthropology's scope and intent. As defined universally, anthropology is the science of man and his works. Its two great divisions are physical anthropology and cultural anthropology—the former being more closely aligned to the natural sciences; the latter (upon which this article focuses), to the social sciences. It is distinguished from other sciences which study man by virtue of what has been identified as ". . . the wider scope of its interests and its greater willingness to borrow and integrate data from any source."[1]

Other distinguishing characteristics of anthropology are its subject matter, i.e., principally peoples with no written history, and its method. Cognizant of regularities and watchful for obscure explanations, the anthropologist aims at a *total* understanding of man. His training and cultural orientation make possible an objective yet empathic approach to the study of the peoples of the world. He sees strength in diversity, all the while being aware of the basic unity of mankind. For him, *"Anthropology holds up a great mirror to man and lets him look at himself in his infinite variety."*[2] This combination of scope, subject matter, and method enables the science of anthropology to arrive at a holistic view of man matched by no other single discipline.

It is generally accepted that anthropology's greatest contribution to modern science is its concept of culture. Education, whether formal or informal, is both the vehicle through which societies perpetuate themselves and a cultural process in itself. In spite of the common ground shared by anthropologists and educators, however, it has been only in recent years that they have started to communicate with one another to any appreciable extent. Opinions have been expressed that the urgent need for improving intercultural relations in a troubled world has had the effect of directing attention to the relatively young science of anthropology as a source of conceptual knowledge which might be used in solving complex problems relative to life in a jet age. In addition, it is maintained that the electrifying effect of Russia's

[1] Ralph Linton, *The Science of Man in the World Crises* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1945), p. 17.

[2] Clyde Kluckholn, *Mirror for Man* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949), p. 11.

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sputnik on the Western world (culminating in an intensive re-evaluation of education in the United States) has tended to bring into sharper focus areas of common concern to educators and anthropologists alike. The contributions of the anthropologist in the field during war and postwar years, which facilitated operations requiring the co-operation of "primitive" peoples, are cited also as having had a direct bearing upon the enhancement of his status in professional education circles. Whatever the cause, and the writer is inclined to eschew oversimplified explanations, it would appear that anthropologists and educators stand closer together today than ever before.

And, yet, the stereotype of the anthropologist as a scientific "playboy," carrying an old bone in one hand and a broken pot in the other, persists in the minds of a majority of teachers and administrators throughout this country. The fault here rests exclusively neither in one camp nor the other but, rather, should be shared by both. Our schools have depended for so long on anthropology merely for fragmentized facts, often carelessly selected and presented, that they have come to regard the anthropologist as little more than a glorified purveyor of esoteric data. Because the ways of life of the simpler peoples of the world traditionally have been part of the basic subject matter of anthropology, the supply of "curious" and "bizarre" facts has appeared to be virtually inexhaustible. All too many educators, improperly understanding their significance, have had little interest or inclination to use them for more than window dressing in social studies classes. The anthropologist has helped to give life to the false image of himself by maintaining a general aloofness from the lay public and by cultivating a jargon about which not even the anthropologists themselves are in universal agreement. Furthermore, his concern with fundamental research—a concern which has caused him to regard with suspicion and antagonism attempts to discover "practical" uses for his knowledge—has operated in its extreme form to reinforce rather than disavow misconceptions about his science and its objectives.

Some of these problems may be traced to anthropology's youthfulness. Problems of method, terminology, interpretation, and application have been common to all sciences in their formative years. During the first half of the twentieth century, the anthropologist who confined his endeavors to developing a better methodology for studying man and his works was motivated by a serious lack of adequate research techniques. Without them, it was impossible for him to function effectively in the field. Once developed, it was necessary for him to test and refine them as he tracked down cross-cultural data. In addition, it has been pointed out that the anthropologist's hesitancy to move from theory to application was governed by other factors as well. Among them, the rapid increase in and the improvement of transportation and communication facilities during the period from World War I to World War II served to give a sense of urgency to his work. If he was to record the cultures of peoples living in isolated areas of the world, he had to do so before they vanished or were altered drastically by the impact of western civilization upon them. Feeling the pressure of time, confronted with rapidly emerging new concepts, and believing his knowledge of culture to be inadequate, he was concerned lest overzealousness to prove the "usefulness" of his science result in a threat to fundamental research. Ready or not, however, World War II catapulted the anthro-

pologist into a new era. His purely academic approach gave way under the pressing need to help solve problems of psychological warfare and of jungle and arctic survival and those of establishing working rapport with allies and strategically-placed tribes of nonliterate peoples. The anthropologist's record of achievement during the war—an achievement all the more outstanding because of the painstaking years of preparation which had preceded it—helped to bring him to the threshold of active participation upon which he now stands.

Despite gains made, the identification of areas within education to which anthropological contributions could be made has been late in coming. Maria Montessori, writing in 1913, was among the early visionaries to attempt to establish a place for anthropology in education. Taking her cue from physical anthropology, she attempted to define a science which she called "pedagogical anthropology." She believed that this science, starting from a ". . . basis of observation and research, must rise to philosophic conceptions regarding the future destiny of man from the biological point of view."[3] Using methods common to European anthropologists of her time, she demonstrated the interrelation of a child's growth and development to such factors as environment and ethnic group membership. Throughout, she emphasized pertinence to school experiences. Errors in some of her data and what we know now to be faulty interpretation (particularly centering on the concept of race) in no way negate the importance of this early contribution.

In the early twentieth-century United States, Franz Boas and Edgar L. Hewett pointed out the relevance of the findings of anthropological research, both physical and cultural, to education. Later, the works of Ruth Benedict, Margaret Mead, Clyde Kluckhohn, Robert Redfield, Ethel Alpenfels, and others supported and enhanced these pioneer attempts to use anthropology to enrich education. But it was not until the last decade that the trickle of anthropological concepts into education began to assume major significance. In part, this was due to the efforts of educators whose far-reaching vision caused them to draw upon the findings of anthropology in their own teaching and writing. The late Paul R. Radosavljevich of New York University comes immediately to mind as a scholar whose multifunctional approach to modern education helped to further the application of anthropology to it. The works of William James, John Dewey, and Marie Rasey, whether the result of conscious intent or not, also bear the imprint of the anthropological point of view. More recently, Theodore Brameld has made one of the major philosophical contributions of our time to education in his interdisciplinary exploration of the relevance of the cultural theory of the anthropologist to educational theory and practice.[4] Calling the scant attention paid to the study of culture theory in teachers' colleges an "academic scandal," Brameld asserts that every teacher-preparation program worthy of professional respect should include in its requirements thorough knowledge of culture theory and its application.

In what ways may the teacher benefit from this study of culture? For one, through understanding culture theory and related concepts, the teacher may expect better to understand and work with students whose cultural backgrounds differ from his own

[3] Maria Montessori, *Pedagogical Anthropology* (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1913), p. vii.

[4] Theodore Brameld, *Cultural Foundations of Education* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957).

and from those of other students. Recognition of the facts that an exclusive quality is not inherent in values of this country and that each culture has its own unique needs can help to equip him to support better the bicultural learner. For another, answers to such questions as "How is culture acquired?" and "How does culture grow and change?" can contribute to his classroom effectiveness and provide him with greater insights into his own beliefs and behaviour. These are but a few of the ways. While anthropology makes no pretense of supplying all of the answers needed for effective teaching and learning, it does contribute data which make the variety of ways man has chosen to satisfy his basic needs appear inspiration rather than anathema. Outstanding examples of how anthropological contributions can enrich teacher-preparation curriculums are provided by a study of just a few of those schools of education where anthropology is taught today, both as a discipline in its own right and as part of the foundation fields of education. Under the thoughtful and far-reaching leadership of Alpenfels at New York University, a multilevel program of long-standing has been developed. Spindler at Stanford and Kimball at Columbia have also developed programs of merit and distinction. Yet, the number of teacher-education institutions which have recognized anthropology as a legitimate course of study for teachers-in-training is few. Some of the reasons behind this condition have been dwelt upon. One may add lack of funds, lack of adequately-trained personnel, and the fear of anthropologists themselves that a commitment to educational interests will alienate them from anthropologists.

The last seems to the writer to be absurd in light of recent developments which have pointed up the need for educationally-oriented anthropological research. Pettitt, in his book *Primitive Education in North America,* demonstrated the universality of pedagogical problems related to the transmission of cultural values to the younger generation.[5] He is no less an anthropologist for having systematically studied these problems and the variety of ways they are met in primitive societies (drawing implications from them for modern education) than is the anthropologist who devotes a lifetime to the study of primitive kinship systems, law, economics, or religion. Nor is the work of any anthropologist made any the less anthropologically significant because of his appointment as a professor in a school of education. Why an interest in the cultural process of education as a field of application should constitute more of a threat to the status of the anthropologist than an interest in, for example, technical assistance seems to the writer to be more a matter of caprice than logical thinking. Spindler, in his introduction to *Education and Anthropology,* the official report of the historic 1954 conference of educators and anthropologists, has pointed out that ". . . a definite and extensive [anthropological] contribution to research on educational problems, in American society at least, has yet to be made."[6] If the anthropologist is to be frightened away from the educational milieu by concern over the possibility of excommunication from his own professional group and by a less than cordial welcome from educators who continue to reject anthropology as not "practical," one wonders where and how this contribution is

[5] George A. Pettitt, *Primitive Education in North America* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1946).

[6] George D. Spindler, *Education and Anthropology* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1955), p. 13.

to be made. Anthropology can help education just as education can help anthropology. But first the distance between them must be more closely bridged by frequent contact and by intelligent understanding of mutually-shared problems and objectives.

One of the best summaries of the ways by which anthropologists can make significant contributions to education has been provided by I. James Quillen, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University. Among the several points made by Quillen in his report to the conference previously mentioned, the following are considered to be particularly noteworthy; they might well constitute a basic blueprint for future co-operation and planning by educators and anthropologists alike.

Anthropologists can give educators a clear conception of the meaning of culture.

Anthropologists can help educators to understand the processes of enculturation, acculturation, and socialization.

Anthropologists can help clarify the role of the school in cultural innovation.

Anthropologists can help teachers to understand the role and influence of non-school educational experiences.

Anthropologists can assist in identifying the core values which Americans seek to preserve and perpetuate in an age of conflict.[7]

The contributions which relate to the classroom teaching of teachers-in-training cannot be made merely by the inclusion in school of education offerings of one or two half-courses of watered anthropology; nor will they be made by an insistence on the part of administrators that courses in anthropology for teachers be "exactly" like those given in liberal arts colleges for anthropology majors. Rather, they will be made in *several* courses taught by educationally-oriented anthropologists whose intelligent *selection* of pertinent materials from the *whole* field of anthropology will guarantee maximum returns from time, money, and effort spent.

The opening statement of this article declared that articulation between anthropology and education has improved in recent years. The writer points in support of it to such conferences as the one held in 1954, to the growing number of teacher-preparation institutions incorporating anthropological content in foundation courses at least, and to the persistence of anthropologists and educators with vision in attempting to establish a closer working rapport between their respective disciplines. There are other positive developments as well. The still-existent shortcomings to which reference has been made are no less real, however, because of these signs of progress. Some are to be expected in times of change; others come as a surprise in our "scientific" age; *all* are to be deplored.

The use of imagination and intelligence in creating and perpetuating a strong educational system has been characteristic of education in this country. Educators have borrowed freely, as have anthropologists, from those sciences and disciplines which have showed promise of providing fruitful leads for further study and consideration. If the quest for excellence in a shrinking world is to be successful, no man of science, of the humanities, or of the arts can afford to ignore the potential source of inspiration and help which may be found outside of his own discipline.

[7] I. James Quillen, "An Introduction to Anthropology and Education," in *Education and Anthropology*, Spindler, *op. cit.* pp. 1-4.

The 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth

BERNICE BAXTER*

WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH have become beacons along the way for those whose efforts are dedicated to the improvement of opportunities for young persons. The Golden Anniversary White House Conference, the fifth in the series, was within the established tradition but was unique in size, preplanning, delegate participation, and the proposed structure for follow-up.

For six days, more than seventy-six hundred representatives—men, women, and youth delegates—met in Washington, D.C. Their deliberations, which in reality predated the conference, produced over sixteen hundred recommendations for the closing session. Delegates, prior to the conference, had participated in town meetings and state conferences so took to their Washington discussion groups those problems that had been enunciated in local and state meetings. Thus there was citizen action before the conference, in the conference itself, and, if the delegates fulfill their own hopes, there will be ten years of continuous citizen consideration and action on the forum findings of the conference.

The publication *Recommendations, Composite Report of Forum Findings*[1] is now available for purchase from the United States Government Printing Office. It is to be hoped that Pi Lambda Thetans will avail themselves of these published findings and give leadership to local groups and to Pi Lambda Theta chapter discussion of these important recommendations.

Pi Lambda Theta had three delegates. In addition to serving on a work group leadership team, one of these delegates represented the national organization on the Council of National Organizations on Children and Youth. This council met before the conference, it met during the conference, and it has held executive committee sessions since the Washington conference. The following excerpt from minutes of the Council of National Organizations indicated the way it plans to continue to function as part of the National Committee for Children and Youth.

National Committee for Children and Youth

This is the Committee being organized for the follow-up of the 1960 Conference. It is composed of 20 persons, 5 each from the Council of National Organizations on Children and Youth, the National Council of State Committees for Children and Youth, the Federal Interdepartmental Com-

[1] *Recommendations, Composite Report of Forum Findings, 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth* (United States Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.). 35¢.

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mittee for Children and Youth, and 5 at large named by the President's National Committee for the 1960 Conference.

This Committee will formally begin operating after the President's National Committee for the Conference concludes its work, probably this September. Plans call for the new Committee to have a small facilitating staff since it is recognized that the major responsibility for follow-up activities rests with existing voluntary and governmental organizations.

The Committee will rely heavily on the three cooperating Councils for guidance and assistance in plans and work. An important phase of their work will be gathering and sharing reports on activities and progress.

The opportunity for Pi Lambda Theta to take its place in interpreting and furthering the recommendations of the 1960 conference should be challenging to members locally and nationally. In making local citizens aware of the recommendations for education, chapters can interpret the findings in their own communities. Nationally, this association has a part to play in extending understanding of the profession to fellow members of the Council of National Organizations on Children and Youth. National program-planning offers a channel to college and alumnæ chapters through which clarity of educational goals and services may be achieved.

The 1960 conference theme was "to promote opportunities for children and youth to realize their full potential for a creative life in freedom and dignity." Greater concern was registered for education than for any other area of discussion. Only attention to the individual child with his uniqueness of need took more discussion time and attention than education. How to help young persons live creatively between the tensions of freedom and authority caused delegates to specify numerous problems for which educational statesmanship will need to search for creative solutions. To lift education to the place it should occupy in national life, the conference recommended "that there be established in the Federal Government a Department of Education with Cabinet status."

Proposals for greater federal, state, and local support were made, governmental scholarships and loans were recommended, and delegates united in advocating

that schools work more closely with parents and community groups in determining the goals and potentialities for good schools, and that educational planning and action be a coordinated effort, using all existing and potential community resources.

These were the recommendations for—

The School Program in General

That the unique role of the school in America be to make available to all children and youth those experiences which will stimulate each student to develop his potential to its fullest, and to meet his intellectual, moral, spiritual, esthetic, vocational, physical, and social needs as an individual, an American citizen, and a member of the world community.

That each school offer those learning opportunities which will realistically fulfill its goals, and that the goals of school systems take into account—

individual capacities and needs of the pupils;
needs of our democratic society;
the changing world;
the cultural pattern and socioeconomic condition of the community;
the contributions of other agencies and institutions to the pupils' education.

That State programs of education be developed in terms of high quality rather than minimum programs; and that the level of quality be continuously appraised and upgraded.

That schools and parents seek more effectively to motivate children and youth to higher levels of achievement in keeping with individual development, interests, and aptitudes.

That a pupil's progress be evaluated in terms of his own potential rather than of a common external standard impossible for some and too easily attainable by others.

That every high school have a comprehensive, diversified multitrack curriculum and achievement grouping within subjects, to insure that every pupil may realize his educational potential.

Also included for discussion were categories of teaching personnel, recruitment, and teacher preparation. Teachers' salaries, too, were specified in recommendations such as the following.

Teachers' Salaries

That teachers' salaries be commensurate with the dignity and importance of the profession, the long preparation, the need for inservice improvement, and the compensation of other professional persons of like educational background and qualifications.

That recognition, favorable working conditions, and opportunities for continued study, professional growth, and advancement be provided, as well as adequate salaries, to insure the highest possible quality of instruction.

Research of a broad and significant character was recommended. Under this heading were the following.

That educational research and experimentation be substantially increased.

That the Federal Government develop a research program in education, comparable to that of the National Institutes of Health, with the following aims—

- to assess needs for research and designate areas of basic concern, such as social and personal values, motivation, etc.;
- to aid in and create standards for the critical evaluation of experimental plans;
- to encourage practical research of a simple local design, leading to action;
- to encourage cooperative research by individual schools, colleges and universities;
- to coordinate and disseminate findings so as to make them accessible at all levels.

That State departments of education receive increased support for improving research.

That basic research financed cooperatively by the Federal and State governments and local school districts and by private foundations be expanded and directed toward developing and utilizing the capacities of slow learners.

That each State undertake, in cooperation with public and private institutions of higher education, a comprehensive 10-year study to determine—

- the probable size of its college-age population;
- the new types of institutions and expansion of programs and services required;
- the necessary building, staff and financial resources.

That research be undertaken in such specific crucial areas as—

- the best use of teachers
- how people learn
- teaching methods
- various forms of school organization
- effective class size
- the value of automatic devices for certain educational purposes
- under achievement
- the causes and possible solution of early school leaving
- rural education and rural life
- evaluation techniques
- the role of the film in the learning process
- methods for improving educational and vocational guidance
- development of moral and spiritual values in youth.

That the results of research investigation (such as studies of causes of school dropouts) be attractively and simply reported in publications for the general public, so that they may implement the research results by action in their own communities.

With Pi Lambda Theta's concentration on the role of the teacher, it is encouraging to note that the representative men, women, and young persons present at the conference viewed teachers in terms of their ability to stimulate children and youth to a realization of their full potential. The importance to society of each young person's continuing development toward a creative life in freedom and dignity was assumed to be the occupation of the school in this country. The curriculum of the school was charged with these purposes:

education for political responsibility (by stressing democratic values, current issues, civics and economics, national defense needs and current military obligations, obligations as citizens of locality, State, Nation, and world)
instruction in our own diversified culture and the culture of other peoples; through such disciplines as literature, social sciences, art, and music; with additional emphasis on languages and social sciences of the non-Western World
greater emphasis on the humanities
an expanded program in music and art to encourage creativity
courses in psychology and philosophy, to be given before the senior year in high school in order to challenge independent thinking and provide an opportunity for free general discussion
educational experiences, at the secondary level, in cooperation with management and labor, to give young people an understanding of the American economic system
exploration and preparation for further educational and vocational opportunities
a program of motion picture and drama appreciation
physical education of high quality for all students at elementary and secondary levels
health education and nutrition at the junior high level
mental hygiene education, based on its moral, social, and biological aspects
education for family life, including sex education
and with emphasis on the causes of human behavior through discussion and participation in appropriate experiences, at all age levels.

The responsibility falls to the educator of leading local communities as well as state and national planning agencies toward the goals held before them by those devoted to the improvement of the physical and social environment in which families are rearing their children. With those serving in education were those who seek improvements in health, housing, recreation, and welfare services. Financial support and needed public education were accepted as the responsibility of all services. Specifically, it was recommended

That research and experimentation with demonstration and pilot projects and community inventory be undertaken to—
study the commonly held values of our society;
identify the factors in healthful adjustment;
improve services for children and youth through the most effective ways of meeting needs of different cultural groups;
find creative approaches to solving problems resulting from mobility.

A broad educational opportunity lies within this last-mentioned category. It is to be hoped that Pi Lambda Thetans will step forward and assume a share of this call to leadership. The public expects of its educators a partnership role in stimulating youth to greater achievement toward a world in which persons of all social and economic backgrounds can live together creatively in freedom and in dignity. Professionally-prepared persons can, if they will, give direction to lay effort. This type of professional-lay partnership demands a courageous assumption by the educator of his rightful role.

The Implications for Education of the United States' Rise to World Power

ROGER H. CHARLIER*

TO ASSUME world leadership does not only entail to be and to act as a military colossus and to attempt to fulfill the delicate role of arbiter of the political arena. The implications of such a position reach much farther and into an unusual array of domains. The last war was not fought, on the Allies' side, so much for territorial advantages as to guarantee the permanence and triumph of an ideology, which we have become accustomed to synthesize in the word "democracy." We won a brilliant victory of arms; the task that has remained unachieved so far is a deep-rooted victory of ideology. This is a task to be accomplished through education.

The role of education in the ideological conflict of today cannot be underestimated. As a distinguished educator put it in a convocation address at the University of Chicago, "We are engaged in the greatest experiment in mass education ever to be undertaken by any nation."[1] He referred to Germany, but his statement applies equally to the world. "Our rise to a position of world leadership carries with it responsibilities in the intellectual, spiritual and cultural areas of life, and that responsibility in part begins in the halls of our universities and classrooms."

Whenever a man or a woman in a business, an enterprise, or even a social group asserts himself or herself as a leader, associates and subordinates will look up to the leader for guidance and example. The same is true in education; the same is true in world leadership. Other countries will be—and already are—looking towards us for leadership. We must assume the responsibilities of our position and meet the challenge that has come our way. In the past ten years, we have, too often, realized that the hit-or-miss method is harmful and thence we need to train qualified educators so that they are able to serve as foreign-affairs advisers when and if needed and as qualified specialists to assume the responsibilities inherent to our role. This training, this preparation, is urgently needed because in 1960, as in 1950, our country, placed almost overnight "in an unsolicited position of world leadership," holds no such position "intellectually, spiritually, and culturally." We cannot any

[1] Alonzo G. Grace, *From Potsdam to Bonn: An Address Delivered at the 243rd Convocation, the University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, September 1, 1950*, p. 5.

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longer remain "in the early stages of adolescence, . . . and in many respects, naive. . . ."[2]

With the help of trained specialists, we shall assert, gradually, the role and stature expected from us and remove the opinion of others—based on Indians and cowboys, whodunits, slapstick motion pictures, and the overbearing antics of American tourists abroad—that we are overgrown children.[3]

We can and we shall fulfill our obligations as leaders.

Already more and more foreign students are coming to the United States for basic or for advanced studies. This proves that other nations believe in us. This is a unique opportunity to implement towards some an educational Point Four program and towards others, as once was suggested, an international Marshall Plan for education.[4] American educators, such as Dewey, have a world-wide reputation.[5] We do not have to assert it by running down other educational approaches but rather "learn not to violate the independence of the educational and cultural systems of others."[6] Let us not treat the foreign student as a minus *habens*; let us, to the contrary, attempt to give a realistic assessment of his studies instead of the ridiculous and often insulting evaluation which is currently in fashion.[7] We know and admit that great works have been produced in languages other than English; therefore, let us have consideration for foreign tongues and those who represent them.

A foreign student often will feel able to express his thoughts far better in his native language than in ours. The same is probably true for most Americans abroad. The foreign trainee should be permitted to use his language, and qualified persons should be called in to interpret. Generous attempts along these lines have been made both in France and Germany. Why not let him write his thesis in the vehicle of expression he knows best; ideas are more important than words, provided a qualified translation is submitted simultaneously and filed as the final document.

We said before that a good deal of our responsibilities of leadership starts in the classroom. We could implement this by giving more careful consideration to such subjects as politics,[8] geography,[9] foreign languages,[10,11] and basic sciences.[12] Is it not deplorable that educational associations had to pass recently a resolution

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 2

[3] Roger H. Charlier (pseud. Henri Rochard), *Where Does America Stand in Europe? An Address Delivered at the Annual Meeting of the Association of American University Women, New Jersey Chapter, at Summit, New Jersey, 1954.*

[4] Grace, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

[5] Walter W. Brickman, "John Dewey's Foreign Reputation as an Educator," *School and Society*, October 22, 1949, pp. 257-65.

[6] Roger H. Charlier, *Contemporary High School and College Education in Europe: An Address Delivered for the Westminster Fellowship, the Community Presbyterian Church, Chester, New Jersey, January 23, 1955.*

[7] Grace, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

[8] Thomas H. Reed and Doris H. Reed, *Preparing College Men and Women for Politics* (New York: New York University, the Citizenship Clearing House, 1952).

[9] Roger H. Charlier, "Geography as a Subject in American Education." *Festschrift Dr. Eduard Brenner.* America Institut, Erlangen University, Nuernberg, Verlag Carl, 1954.

[10] *Plainfield News-Courier*, January 20. 1955, Sec. 2.

[11] Grace, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

[12] John R. Steelman, "Science and Public Policy," in Emergency Management of the National Economy Courses (Washington, D.C.: Industrial College of the Armed Forces, 1947), III.

calling for the teaching of geography in our schools to bring men and women in this country to geographical maturity and to better understanding of the world they live in—the leadership of which rests in the hands of their country that, in a democracy such as ours, means themselves?

The faculty of the Industrial College of the Armed Forces warned, in its courses on the emergency management of the national economy, that the European supply source of basic scientific research upon which we drew in the past is fast sinking. It emphasized that "no longer can America depend so completely upon the importance of foreign-developed theory to sustain its economy and maintain its security."[13] And yet, there is a dire need of science teachers, and the quality of instruction has been constantly deteriorating.

Is it not pathetic to read in our daily press that our youth is looking for what is euphemistically called "bootleg French and German" by calling upon teachers after regular class hours? We desperately need foreign language teaching to maintain our world power position; we need quality more than quantity. And we know, from the above and other manifestations, that our youth is ready to accept the challenge.

Now, what are our aims as leaders in education? (1) To assure everyone of equal opportunity for education, regardless of class, creed, color, or financial status; (2) to teach rather than to impose a democratic philosophy; (3) to understand the psychology of others and not to impose our views upon them since they may not be palatable to others; (4) to trade educational information, to aid only when requested, and to put the accent upon the development of potentialities; and (5) to promote democracy but not to export our own brand, as a cure-all, in a new internationalistic approach.

Once we understand the consequences of our leadership position, the tools being at hand and the aims clearly before our eyes, we cannot but reach success since our human material is of leadership caliber.

[13] *Ibid.*

DUES REMINDER

National dues are $3.00. The fiscal year is July 1 through June 30. Members whose dues are not received by February 1 are considered delinquent, and their names are removed from the mailing list of *Educational Horizons*. The bookkeeping system used at the national office does not provide for the payment of dues in advance. Nor are unpaid dues accepted after the close of a fiscal year. A member may become a life member upon the payment of $75.00, either in one payment or in annual installments of $15.00 each over a period of not more than five years. National dues and life membership payments become payable July 1.

Research

Recipients of the Pi Lambda Theta fellowships are required to make a report for publication on the study for which the award was made. Following is one such report fulfilling requirements in effect when the fellowship was granted. This is a progress report.

"Pretesting in Educational Experiments" is discussed by Doris R. Entwisle.

Often an initial test (pretest) marks the beginning of an experiment. As Campbell (1957) points out, the "ideal" design in social science for the past thirty years has used two groups of subjects in the following design:

	Pretest	Experimental Procedure	Posttest
Group A (Experimental)	Yes	Yes	Yes
Group B (Control)	Yes	No	Yes

Actually, why pretests have been so popular is something of a mystery, since, in order to apply a statistical test to any between-group difference found at the end of an experiment, we need only require that individuals be randomly assigned to the two groups prior to the experimental procedure. No doubt pretests are often given in the hope of increasing experimental precision—if we know where individuals stand on our criterion before an experiment, sometimes we can pinpoint their standing at the end with more exactness (we work with "gains" instead of raw posttest scores). As a matter of fact, increases in precision may be obtained by using a second variable (say intelligence quotient) to stratify the sample or to perform a covariance analysis, and these methods are usually superior to analysis of "gains" (Campbell, 1957; Feldt, 1958).

There may be special circumstances, though, in which a pretest must be used. A pretest might offer the *only* hope of increasing experimental precision because no other second variable can be secured. Or you might want to give a pretest if you wished to know how useful some procedure was for pupils already having different degrees of mastery. In some cases, a pretest might be an experimental necessity—to calibrate a test or to rule out alternative hypotheses. But when he uses a pretest, an investigator obligates himself to provide more data than he needs to provide when no pretest is given. This article attempts to point up the nature of these obligations.

The reason that more data must be provided is that a pretest can be regarded as an experimental treatment in its own right. For example, if students are tested in spelling, they may devote more time during practice to words they missed on the pretest than to words they knew. Without prior testing, they might devote equal time to all words practiced. Or a pretested control group may be motivated to go and search out missed words; so, on second testing (posttest), they do much better even though they supposedly had no practice. For either example mentioned, evaluation of the main experimental treatment (practice) is distorted, because the pretest has induced *different* kinds of changes in the groups on the variable we are measuring. We cannot, therefore, ascribe changes in spelling performance to the experimental treatment alone—supervised practice or presumably no practice—because the pretest has altered the nature of practice in one case and induced practice in the other case. There are other ways that pretests might act to muddy up experiments besides the ways mentioned; and, in general, any "pretest influence" that affects the experimental group and the control group differently will cause an experiment to be in error. From the experiments on pretest influences reported here, it appears that pretesting effects may be quite large.

Giving pretests is also related to a different kind of error. To have value, experimental results from one group must be applicable to other groups. If pretests are used in an experiment, the results can be properly applied only to situations in which a pretest is given.

For instance, suppose that pretests "alert" students—having been tested once, they may assume that they will be tested again and so be motivated to pay attention during training. On the other hand, when training is given without the "alert," they may pay scant attention. In this case, a form of training (with pretests) judged experimentally to be rather effective might turn out to have small value when used by itself.

An expanded experimental design, suggested by Solomon (1949), permits pretesting per se to be evaluated along with the main experimental treatment. An expanded design estimates the effect of pretesting alone, of pretesting combined with treatment, and of the main treatment alone. It can thus be determined exactly which part of an experiment is responsible for changes in the subjects.

Previous work with pretests. Over a decade ago, Solomon (1949) suggested that a two-group-pretest design probably should be enlarged to three or four groups (adding Groups C and D to the ordinary pretest design illustrated above):

	Pretest Given	No Pretest Given
Experimental Procedure	Group A	Group C
Control Procedure	Group B	Group D

With a four-group design, one can estimate the effect of pretesting alone (Group B vs. Group D) and the effect of pretesting when combined with subsequent training (Group A vs. Group C).

To see whether pretesting effects were worth bothering about, Solomon ran two small spelling experiments with fifth- and sixth-grade children. He used Groups A, B, and C. (He omitted Group D.) Surprisingly, he found that Group A, pretested before spelling instruction, did not do as well as the group given only instruction (Group C). Pretesting *depressed* the effectiveness of training in both his experiments. Why pretesting acted in this manner is open to speculation, and Solomon suggested that perhaps pretesting permitted students to practice (and so stamp in) errors. Little notice has been taken of these findings. To the author's knowledge, only one study has subsequently used an expanded design with pretests in a training experiment (Piers, 1954).

Studies of attitude phenomena reveal various effects when pretests are given prior to "propaganda" designed to change attitudes. Pretests can be beneficial, for Lazarsfeld (cited by Campbell, 1957) found that an information campaign designed to make people conscious of the United Nations went unnoticed unless persons were first tested on their knowledge of the UN. Other attitude studies show pretests to be hindering (Hovland *et al.*, 1953) or seemingly inconsequential (Lana, 1959). The diverse results from attitude studies and also the need for replication of Solomon's work led to the present experiments. Our experiments deal with pretests in educational settings. The complete analyses upon which the present report is based may be found elsewhere (Entwisle, 1960a).

The Long Experiment.[1] In a large experiment (N = 120) addressed primarily to another problem (Entwisle, 1960b), a four-group expanded pretest design was used. Subjects were fourth-grade students in a single school. It was possible to study systematically differences among various IQ levels and various classes (teachers), as well as various treatments.

Experimental subjects were trained over a two-month period on the state-locations of large United States cities. Control subjects were monitored in the library while training took place. All the treatment groups, experimental and control, were randomly divided in half before the experiment started, and one-half of each treatment group was pretested and the other half was not pretested. The Long Experiment, then, was an elaboration of Solomon's four-group design illustrated earlier, with two control groups and two experimental groups, combined with the control variables of IQ and class. Analysis of posttest scores showed no over-all difference between pretested students and nonpretested stu-

[1] This experiment was possible through the kind co-operation of Mary Adams, assistant superintendent for elementary education, Baltimore City Schools, and Marie Frank, principal, Arlington Elementary School, Baltimore, Maryland.

dents, and pretesting did not appear to affect different classes or IQ-levels differently (interactions). (Even though there was no over-all effect, different groups might gain or lose.)

These results were puzzling, for the Long Experiment resembles Solomon's experiments in many ways. The subjects were similar, and the training tasks comparable. Since Solomon had conducted two independent experiments and observed a depressing effect of pretesting both times, it did not seem likely that he had observed a chance effect, even though his experiments were small ($N = 30, N = 25$).

Two ways of reconciling the results of the Long Experiment with Solomon's experiments seemed plausible. (1) A pretesting effect may evaporate with time, so that, unless training quickly follows pretesting, pretesting makes no difference. Solomon's experiments were conducted in a single day, whereas the Long Experiment had three training sessions and the testings spread out over two months. (2) It might be that pretesting acts differentially by IQ-level, so that one level is helped by pretesting while another level is hindered. In an experiment where students were rather crudely matched on IQ, like the Long Experiment, these differential effects might not have had a very good chance to display themselves. That is, a "real" interaction might fail to be uncovered because of the way the IQ groups had been formed.

The second hypothesis came to mind because, in the Long Experiment posttest, scores of various IQ groups seemed to change in different directions, even though the analysis of variance did not point to an interaction of this sort. For three subgroups of high IQ, pretesting was helpful. For fifteen other subgroups of average IQ, pretesting was mildly hindering for ten out of the fifteen. If pretesting did act differentially according to IQ level, Solomon's results might come from the fact that he used only pupils whose IQ was average or below.

The Short Experiment.[2] Another experiment was carried out to test the hypotheses outlined under (1) and (2) above. The Short Experiment was done quickly—in only two days—so the influence of time might be clarified. Also subjects were selected to include only pupils of high (above 115) or average (below 105) IQ, so, if pretesting interacts with IQ, an interaction might be more easily displayed.[3]

The Short Experiment dealt with two treatment groups. Both groups were trained, but only one group was pretested before training (Groups A and C of the four-group design). It was necessary to secure students from two schools, but conditions of testing and training were kept as identical as possible in the two schools, and only about one hour elapsed between the experimenter's visits to the schools. The analysis indicates that there was no discernible difference between schools, and the schools were initially chosen because they were geographically close and enrolled students of about the same socio-economic level.

For every pretested subject, there was another subject, of the same IQ and with the same classroom teacher, who was not pretested. For each of these pretest-nonpretest pairs, the pretested member was designated randomly. On the first day of the experiment, pretesting of half the students and a training session for all students took place. On the second day of the experiment, forty-eight hours later, all students were trained once more and then all were posttested.

	Pretest	Two Training Sessions	Posttest
Group A	Yes	Yes	Yes
Group C	No	Yes	Yes

[2] Grateful acknowledgement is made to B. Melvin Cole, director of elementary education, Board of Education, Baltimore County Public Schools; to Maynard Webster, principal, Lutherville Elementary School; and to Jack Earnshaw, principal, Timonium Elementary School. Their co-operation made this experiment possible.

[3] The original hope was to sample only extreme groups—high and low—but lack of enough "low" students made it necessary to set the lower cutting point at 105.

It should be emphasized again that both groups were trained, but only one group was pretested.

Score on an abbreviated version of the test used in the Long Experiment was the criterion, and training was conducted as follows: (1) a slide showing the name of a city was projected for 0.1 second; (2) an opportunity was then given for subjects to write the state location on an answer sheet; (3) immediately after, the name of the correct state was shown for 0.1 second. This procedure was repeated for all twenty-nine test items. The material was selected because it is not directly taught in school and because previous experience had shown pupils responded to the game-like nature of the training.

Analysis of variance of posttest scores showed no over-all difference between pretested and nonpretested students, the average posttest scores being 20.2 and 19.9 respectively. There were differences within sex-IQ groupings, however, manifested by a very significant (beyond the 0.01 level) interaction between pretesting, sex, and IQ. Pretesting helped high-IQ girls and average-IQ boys and hindered high-IQ boys and average-IQ girls. Probably not too much attention should be paid to the actual differences, i.e., that high-IQ girls are helped by pretesting, etc. Rather the point is that, in evaluating the training procedure, what is true for the group as a whole is not true for any subgroup and what is advantageous for one subgroup is disadvantageous for another. Effectiveness of training will be misjudged, therefore, unless subgroupings are studied as separate units.

The Short Experiment, then, tends to resolve the disagreement between Solomon's experiments and the Long Experiment. It is easy to imagine combinations of sex-IQ subgroups that would reproduce Solomon's finding of a depression from pretesting. It should be noted, too, that the Short Experiment was conducted quickly like Solomon's experiments.

Reanalysis of the Long Experiment. The outcome of the Short Experiment prompted another examination of the Long Experiment, since sex appeared to be an important variable and the Long Experiment had not allowed study of sex variations. The treatment groups had originally been balanced for sex. However, by discarding some data, it was possible to analyze the Long Experiment following the plan of the Short Experiment. In the reanalysis, two IQ levels and sex (two categories) were used as control variables. Pretested and nonpretested subjects were matched for class (teacher); and, within each sex-IQ subgrouping, at least two classes are included. Since students are selected in pairs (one pretested and the other not pretested), and both members of a pair have the same teacher, it seems very unlikely that there could be any systematic teacher-effect.

Reanalysis of the Long Experiment shows the same results as the Short Experiment—an interaction between pretesting, sex, and IQ—but the level of significance is lower (5 per cent). No doubt the lower significance level is owing (at least partly) to the fact that fewer subjects could be used (thirty-two in the reanalysis compared to sixty-four in the Short Experiment). Again when groups are pooled, there is no over-all difference between pretesting and not pretesting.

Another segment of the Long Experiment dealt with control groups (B and D of Solomon's paradigm). This segment was reanalyzed, too, according to the plan of the Short Experiment, even though it was not a replication of any part of the Short Experiment. Again by discarding data, an experiment was "designed" with sex and two levels of IQ as control variables. The main control group in the Long Experiment had consisted of two parts—one pretested and the other not pretested—and the problem at issue is whether a control group given two testings two months apart is different from a control group tested once, at posttest. The same matching for teachers described earlier was carried out here also.

The same test was used for both pretesting and posttesting. Again there is no difference between the average scores for all the groups taken together—the pretested control group gets 16.2 on posttest, and the control group given only the posttest gets 16.6. But high-IQ students average 20.0 on second testing compared to 18.0 on first, whereas students with IQ's in the mid-90's average 12.5 on second testing compared to 15.2 on first. For high-

IQ subjects, scores on second administration of the test are appreciably higher than on first testing, even though these subjects were in the control group and given no training by the experimenter. Lower-IQ subjects, on the other hand, do worse on second testing than on first. Here sex does not appear to interact, and only IQ-level is important in relation to pretesting.

Discussion. All the analyses, whether of training groups (A and C) or of control groups (B and D), suggest that pretesting influences are not negligible, even though all averages for total groups are similar. It appears that pretested subjects react differently to training from nonpretested subjects, but the direction and size of the difference depend on the sex and IQ of the subject. Furthermore, a pretested control group shows more variability in final scores than a control group not pretested, because high-IQ subjects tend to gain from the first testing while those with lower IQ's suffer from prior testing. With all these complex effects, it is clear that estimates of the value of training are altered in complex ways. Frequently the value of training is estimated by subtracting control-group scores from experimental-group scores. But, if both groups have been pretested, this simple subtraction may not be legitimate because the effects of both the experimental procedure and the control procedure vary according to characteristics of the subjects. To illustrate the difficulties in estimating the value of training when interactions are present, some data have been drawn from the reanalysis of the Long Experiment. Separate estimates of training-effectiveness have been computed for different sex-IQ groupings, and the reader can see from the column of "Effectiveness Differences" that training apparently has different impact upon different kinds of subjects.

TABLE I

ESTIMATES OF TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS
REANALYSIS OF LONG EXPERIMENT

	IQ—above or below 100		Mean Post-test Score	"Effectiveness" Difference
Pretested Controls	Above	Boys	20.8	
	Above	Girls	19.2	
	Below	Boys	11.0	
	Below	Girls	14.0	
	Above	Boys	19.0	—1.8
	Above	Girls	20.5	1.3
	Below	Boys	21.5	10.5
	Below	Girls	16.2	2.2
Mean, Both Pretested Groups			17.8	
Controls, No Pretest	Above	Boys	18.8	
	Above	Girls	17.2	
	Below	Boys	15.5	
	Below	Girls	15.0	
Training Group, No Pretest	Above	Boys	22.5	3.7
	Above	Girls	19.2	2.0
	Below	Boys	18.5	3.0
	Below	Girls	14.2	—0.8
Mean, Both Nonpretested Groups			17.6	

Estimates of training effectiveness range from −1.8 to 10.5 depending upon the sex and IQ of subjects, and the differences are rather disparate between halves of the table, i.e., whether the differences are estimated from an experiment with pretests or without pretests. The scores of Table I are based on four subjects in each subgroup; and, of course, such small numbers do not permit much confidence to be placed in the absolute magnitudes of the differences. But for all subgroups except high-IQ girls, training effects appear to be different depending upon whether or not a pretest has been given.

The main point of these experiments is *not* the specific size or direction of pretesting differences. The small size of subgroups has already been mentioned, and more work is necessary to define exact kinds of changes associated with pretesting. Rather, these experiments all point to the existence of complex effects from pretesting, so that an investigator who uses pretests probably should use a design that permits study of pretesting per se. The specific kinds of pretesting effects found in our experiments may not be generally found. But, in view of Solomon's two previous experiments, one would guess that some type of pretesting effect may be more prevalent than has previously been suspected. In particular, the initial failure to find pretesting effects in the Long Experiment but their subsequent emergence when subgroups were constituted using an alternate classification suggests that pretesting effects can easily be missed.

Another implication of the findings, although very tentative at present, is that perhaps testing alone can be an effective instructional procedure for some students, i.e., those of high IQ. It has been pointed out elsewhere (Entwisle, 1960b) that inducing a set to learn a particular kind of material appears to cause increments in learning even when no direct encounter with the material is arranged. In other words, by directing students' attention to a particular kind of subject matter, this material is learned on vicarious exposure without being taught directly. A test may help induce a set for high-IQ students, and this set may persist and aid learning during the interval between testings. Why testing should be hindering to low- or average-IQ students is a moot question—perhaps, as Solomon suggested, errors are stamped in.

In Solomon's experiments, Groups A, B, and C were used. Since the Long Experiment shows strong pretesting interactive effects within the control group, probably a four-group design is preferable to a three-group design.

Time does not appear to be crucial as far as pretesting is concerned. The Short Experiment, lasting two days, and Solomon's one-day experiments reveal pretesting effects; and the Long Experiment, lasting two months, reveals pretesting effects in both the training and control segments. It does appear necessary to match subjects carefully on IQ if pretesting effects are to be uncovered, and, of course, sex should probably be included as a control variable also.

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The President's Page

THE ESTABLISHMENT of an alumnæ chapter in the fiftieth state marked the conclusion of Pi Lambda Theta's fiftieth anniversary. The national President of the organization installed the Hawaii Alumnæ Chapter in Honolulu on December 17, 1960. For several years, even before Hawaii attained statehood, a nucleus of members had met frequently and sponsored professional activities. The eighteen charter members had been initiated in eight different chapters when working for advanced degrees. Their growing interest in a professional program had been observed by members of the National Board and others who had visited the islands. It was a cordial welcome which the national organization extended to its eighty-second chapter. By December, 1960, the group had attracted forty-five members and had embarked on a stimulating program focusing on education at the crossroads of East and West. Probably no chapter faces a greater challenge in interpreting the goals of education nor brings to bear on the problem more resources within its own membership, for members have studied in many of the finest institutions in the United States. A major project of the Hawaii Alumnæ Chapter will be the development of an honorary education group for women students in education at the University of Hawaii. The installing officer was provided an opportunity to become acquainted with the program in teacher education at the University of Hawaii and with plans for international education in the new East-West Center at the university. Pi Lambda Theta watches with interest the progress of this exciting program. Having enjoyed the warm hospitality and professional fellowship of Hawaiian alumnæ, the national President anticipates with interest the reports of future visitors on the progress of this newest chapter.

A special committee of the National Board met in Chicago in November, 1960, to examine the purpose of Pi Lambda Theta. Edith L. Ball, M. Virginia Biggy, Lois Knowles, Roberta Shine, and Sylvia Vopni drafted a new statement of purposes to be submitted to the membership in 1961. At this critical time for the profession of education, it appeared that there was a need to reformulate and revitalize the purposes. Chapters will be asked to consider carefully any statement to be adopted as a guide for the organization in the years ahead.

Since the stimulation of research in education continues as an important goal of this association, Shata L. Ling met with the special Board committee during the second day of its deliberations, and special policies on support of research were considered. It is imperative that chapters augment their financial support of the Fiftieth Anniversary Fellowship Fund if the organization is to continue its current policy of awarding three substantial fellowships annually. If chapters or individuals wish to suggest modifications of the policy for encouraging research in education, their suggestions will be welcomed at this time. In light of current trends, Pi Lambda Theta may wish to entertain the possibility of supporting major research

under contracts rather than by fellowships. The reactions of members to such a proposal would be appreciated.

Edith L. Ball and the Program Committee are at work in planning the program for the Twenty-second Biennial Council to be held in Chicago in August, 1961. Delegates to Council will receive inspiration for program-planning in the biennium ahead.

Soon chapters will be receiving the report of the Nominating Committee from the chairman, Marion E. Wiles. They are asked to consider carefully the qualifications of all nominees and to cast a thoughtful ballot.

May 1961 be a productive year for Pi Lambda Theta. Reports of the achievements of members and the accomplishments of chapters will be anticipated as Council time approaches. Let us know what *you* are doing to further the goals of education in the United States in the second half of the twentieth century. Pi Lambda Theta has been identifying potentially-talented women in education for half a century. In the process of professional development, are Pi Lambda Thetans contributing to innovations in education? The release of creative potential is an imperative challenge of the years ahead in education.

SYLVIA VOPNI

The Hawaii Alumnæ Chapter was installed on December 17, 1960. The Hawaii Alumnæ Chapter is the *eighty-second* chapter of Pi Lambda Theta and the *thirty-fifth* alumnæ chapter.

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SEPTEMBER 15	Send any corrections in names and addresses of chapter officers to the national office. Notify all chapter members that dues for the current year (July 1 through June 30) are payable.
OCTOBER 30	Distribute copies of yearly chapter programs to members, National Board members, and the national office.
NOVEMBER	Commemorate Founders' Day.
BY DECEMBER 15	Send suggestions for nominees for national officers to the Chairman of the Nominating Committee.
DECEMBER AND JANUARY	Complete collection of dues from chapter members. Send to the national office *before February 1.* (Names of members who are delinquent on that date are removed from the mailing list of *Educational Horizons.*)
FEBRUARY 1	Send the Council fee for the current year to the national office.
BY OR BEFORE JUNE 1	Return ballots for election of national officers to the national office.
BY JUNE 1	Return credential forms for Council delegates and alternates, in Biennial Council years, to the national office.
BY JUNE 30	Send, on forms supplied by the national office, suggestions from chapters to the national office and names and addresses of new chapter officers to the national President and to the national office.
JUNE 30 TO JULY 15	Send, on forms supplied by the national office, annual financial reports to the national Treasurer and to the national office. (Chapters whose financial reports are not received by July 15 become delinquent.)

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